

# High-precision computation of two-loop Feynman diagrams with Wilson fermions

Stefano Capitani<sup>a</sup>, Sergio Caracciolo<sup>b</sup>, Andrea Pelissetto<sup>c</sup> and Giancarlo Rossi<sup>d</sup>

<sup>a</sup>DESY, Notkestraße 85, D-22607 Hamburg, Germany

<sup>b</sup>Scuola Normale Superiore and INFN, Sezione di Pisa, I-56100 Pisa, Italy

<sup>c</sup>Dipartimento di Fisica and INFN, Università degli Studi di Pisa, I-56100 Pisa, Italy

<sup>d</sup>Dipartimento di Fisica, Università di Roma “Tor Vergata” and INFN, Sezione di Roma II, Via della Ricerca Scientifica 1, I-00133 Roma, Italy

We apply the coordinate-space method by Lüscher and Weisz to the computation of two-loop diagrams in full QCD with Wilson fermions on the lattice. The essential ingredient is the high-precision determination of mixed fermionic-bosonic propagators.

At the Lattice conference of last year we presented [1] an algebraic algorithm that allows to express every one-loop lattice integral with gluon or Wilson-fermion propagator in terms of a small number of basic constants which can be computed with arbitrary high precision [2]. This was a generalization of what we did previously with purely bosonic integrals [3] and it was also an essential step in order to apply the coordinate-space method by Lüscher and Weisz [4] to higher-loop integrals with fermions.

Let us consider, in order to fix the ideas, an example of a two-loop integral at zero external momentum, like

$$I = \int \frac{d^4 l}{(2\pi)^4} \frac{d^4 r}{(2\pi)^4} \frac{1}{D_F(l)D_F(r)D_F(l+r)} \quad (1)$$

where

$$D_F(l) = \sum_{i=1}^4 \sin^2 l_i + \frac{r_W}{4} (\vec{l}^2)^2 \quad (2)$$

defines the usual Wilson propagator with momentum  $\vec{l}$  at zero fermion mass with Wilson parameter  $r_W$ . In all our calculation we have set  $r_W = 1$  but the method can be applied for any value of  $r_W$ . A possible strategy to evaluate such an integral amounts to replace each integration with a discrete sum over  $L$  points and afterwards to ex-

trapolate to infinite  $L$ . A possibility is rewriting (1) as

$$I = \frac{1}{L^8} \sum_{l,r,l+r \neq 0} \frac{1}{D_F(l)D_F(r)D_F(l+r)} \quad (3)$$

where each component  $l_i$  and  $r_i$  runs over the set  $2\pi(n + 1/2)/L$ ,  $n = 0, \dots, L-1$ . From the sum we exclude the points such that  $l+r = 0 \bmod 2\pi$  where the third propagator diverges. Another possibility is to use (3) but with  $l_i$  and  $r_i$  running over the set  $2\pi n/L$ ,  $n = 0, \dots, L-1$ . In this case however there are more problems with the zero modes and one should exclude from the sum the terms with  $l = r = l+r = 0 \bmod 2\pi$ . For this reason we have decided to use the first method. For our previous example we get for increasing values of  $L$

$L = 10$	0.000799652
$L = 18$	0.000848862
$L = 20$	0.000853822
$L = 26$	0.000863064

Then, using an extrapolation of the form

$$a_0 + \frac{a_1 \log L + a_2}{L^2} + \frac{a_3 \log L + a_4}{L^4} \quad (4)$$

and data with  $6 \leq L \leq 26$ , we obtain the estimate

$$I \approx 0.000879776$$

which has to be compared with what we obtained by using the coordinate-space method

$$I \approx 0.0008797779181(12)$$

Let

$$G(p, q, \vec{x}) = \int dk \frac{e^{i\vec{k} \cdot \vec{x}}}{D_F^p(k) D_B^q(k)} \quad (5)$$

where  $D_B(k) = \hat{k}^2$  is the usual bosonic propagator on the lattice. In the coordinate-space approach we are interested in the evaluation of the lattice sums

$$I(p_1, q_1, \vec{a}, p_2, q_2, \vec{b}, p_3, q_3, \vec{c}) = \sum_{\vec{x}} G(p_1, q_1, \vec{x} + \vec{a}) G(p_2, q_2, \vec{x} + \vec{b}) G(p_3, q_3, \vec{x} + \vec{c}) \quad (6)$$

In this notation our previous example corresponds to

$$I = I(1, 0, \vec{0}, 1, 0, \vec{0}, 1, 0, \vec{0}) \quad (7)$$

In the evaluations of these sums we make use of the following advantages:

- only four infinite lattice sums must be computed;
- the  $G(p, q, \vec{x})$ 's can be determined with the desired precision, for a sufficiently large domain of values of  $\vec{x}$ , by using our algebraic algorithm [2];
- the asymptotic expansion for large values of  $|\vec{x}|$  of the  $G(p, q, \vec{x})$ 's is easily computed. For example

$$G(1, 0, \vec{x}) = \frac{1}{\pi^2} \left[ \frac{1}{4x_2} - \frac{1}{x_2^2} + \frac{2x_4}{x_2^4} - \frac{10}{x_2^3} + \frac{52}{x_2^5} + \frac{160x_4^2}{x_2^7} - \frac{192x_6}{x_2^6} + \dots \right] \quad (8)$$

where  $x_n = \sum_{\mu} x_{\mu}^n$ .

Let us now consider how to compute sums of the type

$$\Sigma = \sum_{\Lambda} f(x) \quad (9)$$

on the lattice  $\Lambda$ . Of course we will not be able to sum over all the lattice. If  $|x|_1 = \sum_{\mu} |x_{\mu}|$ , we will perform a sum over a domain of the type  $D_p = \{x \in \Lambda : |x|_1 \leq p\}$ . The problem is to give an estimate of the error. If  $f(x)$  decreases for large  $|x|$  as  $1/|x|^{2k}$  we expect the sum restricted to  $D_p$  to behave as

$$\Sigma(p) = \sum_{D_p} f(x) = \Sigma + \frac{A}{p^{2k-4}} + \dots \quad (10)$$

Thus we will estimate

$$|\Sigma - \Sigma(p)| = \frac{p}{2k-4} |\Sigma(p) - \Sigma(p-1)| \quad (11)$$

Our error formula seems to work correctly. We will use this formula to estimate the error on the integration sums. We can also define an improved estimate for  $\Sigma$  by

$$\Sigma \approx \Sigma(p) + \frac{p}{2k-4} (\Sigma(p) - \Sigma(p-1)) \quad (12)$$

Notice that now our error estimate is *very* conservative. The larger is  $k$  the best is the estimate. For this reason, if we know the asymptotic behaviour  $Af(x)$  of the function  $f(x)$  for large  $x$  it is convenient to write

$$\Sigma \approx \sum_{D_p} [f(x) - Af(x)] + \sum_{\Lambda} Af(x) \quad (13)$$

because the difference is decreasing faster at infinity and the sum of  $Af(x)$  can be computed directly on the infinite lattice by using harmonic polynomials and  $\zeta$ -functions as explained in [4]. Coming back to our preferred example, by subtracting an increasing number of terms of the asymptotic expansion, we get the estimates

$$\begin{aligned} I &= 0.0008798104043 \pm 0.0000008730034 \\ &= 0.0008797776858 \pm 0.0000000029778 \\ &= 0.0008797779227 \pm 0.0000000000410 \\ &= 0.0008797779181 \pm 0.0000000000012 \end{aligned}$$

In our work we have always used the asymptotic expansions to increase the precision of the estimates. In each case we have subtracted the asymptotic behaviour to order  $1/|x|^{10}$ : therefore the function which is summed over a finite lattice decays at least as  $1/|x|^{12}$ .

A number of checks have been performed on the table of numerical integrals that we have collected (at the moment we have a number of entries of order  $10^4$ ). In particular

- In the case in which we restrict ourselves to purely bosonic integrals we compare perfectly with the numbers given in [4].
- Because of translation invariance, for every  $\vec{v}$  on the lattice

$$I(p_1, q_1, \vec{a}, p_2, q_2, \vec{b}, p_3, q_3, \vec{c}) = \quad (14)$$

$$I(p_1, q_1, \vec{a} + \vec{v}, p_2, q_2, \vec{b} + \vec{v}, p_3, q_3, \vec{c} + \vec{v})$$

- From the definition of the bosonic propagator one easily gets

$$\frac{1}{D_B^p(k)} = \frac{\sum_{\mu} (2 - e^{ik_{\mu}} - e^{-ik_{\mu}})}{D_B^{p+1}(k)} \quad (15)$$

which can be used to derive relations among different  $I$ 's. Similarly, other relations can be obtained from the definition of the fermionic propagator.

- New identities are obtained by integration by parts, that is by using

$$\int dk_{\mu} \frac{\partial}{\partial k_{\mu}} F(k_{\mu}) = 0 \quad (16)$$

All the checks we have performed are satisfied with a precision of at least  $10^{-10}$

We have prepared a completely automatic procedure which evaluates Feynman diagrams at two loops. It goes through the following steps

1. Each diagram is reduced as a sum of the integrals  $I$ 's, previously defined in (6). A mass is added at all propagators in order to regularize the infrared divergences.
2. All the possible symmetries (cubic: translations, permutations of the axes, inversions of the axes; permutations of the three propagators) are used to reduce the number of terms.

3. Through subtractions all the terms are written as convergent sums plus product of 1-loop integrals.
4. All 1-loop integrals are expressed as in [1,2].
5. The convergent sums are replaced by their numerical estimate obtained from a pre-compiled table of lattice sums in the domain  $D_{21}$ .

This procedure is now being used to compute the mixing coefficients of the four fermion operators of the lattice weak hamiltonian with the dimension 5 operators. We have chosen this computation because it starts at the two-loop level and because these coefficients have already been studied by using the momentum-space approach [5]. The computation is highly non trivial. The typical input, for each diagram, contains order  $10^4$  terms and produces a final result of order  $10^{-4}$ . Unfortunately at the moment our results are still preliminary and we are performing all possible checks on our evaluations.

## REFERENCES

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